FRONT MATTER

Title

Optimized gene expression from bacterial chromosome by high-throughput integration and

screening

Short title: Optimizing expression by Tn5 integration

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Abstract

Chromosomal integration of recombinant genes is desirable compared to expression from

plasmids due to increased stability, reduced cell-to-cell variability, and the elimination of

antibiotics for plasmid maintenance. Here, we present a new approach for tuning pathway gene

expression levels via random integrations and high-throughput screening. We demonstrate

multiplexed gene integration and expression-level optimization for isobutanol production in

Escherichia coli. The integrated strains could, with significantly lower expression levels than

plasmid-based expression, produce high titers (10.0 ± 0.9 g/L isobutanol in 48 h) and yields (69 %

of the theoretical maximum). Close examination of pathway expression in the top-performing, as

well as other isolates, reveals the complexity of cellular metabolism and regulation, underscoring

the need for precise optimization while integrating pathway genes into the chromosome. We

expect this new method for multiplexed pathway gene integration and expression optimization can

be readily extended to a wide range of pathways and chassis to create robust and efficient

production strains.

MAIN TEXT

The manuscript should be a maximum of 15,000 words.

Introduction

Microbial biosynthesis is a sustainable, high-specificity approach to achieving chemical conversions with the potential to produce a vast assortment of pharmaceutical, fuel, and commodity chemicals. Development of a high-performing production strain for a desired molecule generally requires tuning the expression levels of native and/or heterologous genes in hosts such as *Escherichia coli* (*1, 2*). While extrachromosomal multicopy plasmids offer a convenient method for rapidly prototyping different expression levels of genes, and the majority of metabolic engineering efforts utilize them, they have several challenging attributes. First and foremost, plasmids are unstable, which has been extensively documented and studied due to the importance of plasmids in biotechnology (*3-9*). Cells with plasmids can suffer from both structural instability, in which the plasmid is still carried but mutations inactivate the gene of interest, as well as segregational instability, in which some cells no longer carry the plasmid (*10, 11*). Plasmids can also multimerize, which decreases their stability (*12, 13*). Second, plasmid copy number can vary between cells within stable populations, and the degree of variation is often not well characterized even for widely used plasmids (*14*). Münch *et al.* (*15*) presented a striking example of cellular heterogeneity during plasmid-based production of recombinant protein in *Bacillus megaterium*. The authors found that, under the condition of strong selective pressure, 30% of the cell population was in a low-producing state. This heterogeneity was found to be a result of asymmetric plasmid distribution. Moreover, plasmids require a selective pressure, which is typically an antibiotic molecule. The addition of antibiotics raises the process costs, puts additional stress on the cells, and is not always effective in enforcing maintenance of the plasmid. Kanamycin, for example, can become an ineffective selection agent at high phosphate concentrations (*16*). Furthermore, due to the rise of multidrug-resistant pathogens, there is strong motivation to reduce antibiotic usage (*17*).

Chromosomal integration and expression of genes is an effective way of avoiding the issues

of plasmids described above. This alternative approach leads to more stable and robust production

strains, as well as reduce leakiness of inducible expression systems, which are highly desirable traits

for large-scale and long-term production processes (*18, 19*). Mairhofer *et al.* (*20*) compared a

plasmid-based to a chromosomally integrated expression system and found a much more significant

stress response in the plasmid-carrying strain. They identified massive overtranscription of the

plasmid-based gene of interest, leading to diversion of ribosomes and other cellular resources, as

the source of the metabolic burden.

Significant research efforts have been devoted to developing techniques for synthetic

integrations (*21-23*). The two tools most widely used in prokaryotes for targeted integration of

constructs are homologous recombination by expression of the RecET or λ-Red proteins (*24-26*)

and site-specific recombination (*27*). Homologous recombination enables rapid integration into a

desired locus but is only suitable for constructs up to several kilobases in size and that do not carry

significant homology to another part of the genome. Site-specific recombination is less restrictive

of the input construct but requires a bacterial chromosomal attachment site (*attB*) in the recipient

genome, which can place limitations on the location of integration. This site restrictiveness can be

circumvented by first inserting the attachment site into the target locus (*28*). Yet, despite the

recognized desirability of chromosomal integration and the genetic tools available for targeted

integrations, achieving suitable gene expression levels from the chromosome for optimal production

remains far more challenging than manipulation of gene expression via plasmids, even in well-

studied organisms such as *E. coli* (*22*).

Chromosomal gene expression levels are dependent on multiple determinants. Similar to

plasmid-based gene expression, elements of the genetic construct, including promoters, ribosome-

binding sites (RBSs), and enhancers or activators, can be exploited to optimize heterologous gene

expression. Yet, single-copy expression from the chromosome is generally weaker than that of the

same construct from a multi-copy plasmid. Subsequently, there have been efforts in increasing the

copy number on the chromosome to achieve high-level gene expression (*18, 29*).

Another determinant affecting the expression level from the chromosome strongly is the

location of gene integration. It has long been known that during exponential growth, genes closer to

the origin of replication experience higher gene dosage and, therefore, higher expression levels (*30,*

31). More recently it has been shown that other factors related to genomic position, such as level of

DNA compaction or proximity to active genes, can also affect gene expression levels (*32, 33*). In

examining transcription levels of a reporter gene at various sites in the *E. coli* genome, Bryant *et al.*

(*32*) and Scholz *et al.* (*33*) observed significant differences, up to ~300-fold, in expression across

the *E. coli* genome, excluding gene dosage effects. Intriguingly, on the other hand, it has been

suggested that in nature, microorganisms may use transposon-mediated transfer of catabolic genes

to different genomic locations as a means of fine-tuning their expression levels in order to adapt to

new environmental conditions (*34*). These findings suggest that modulation of gene integration

position can serve as a useful tool for regulating expression levels. For instance, Loeschcke *et al.*

(*35*) have developed an approach for transfer and expression (TREX) of biosynthetic pathways in

bacteria utilizing Tn5 transposase to integrate gene clusters into random sites of the chromosomes

and, based on resulting colony color intensities, observed a range of production levels for pigmented

secondary metabolites.

Synthetic biology applications targeting the production of a small molecule often require

delicately balanced cellular resource allocation between production and growth, as well as across

different genes of the biosynthetic pathway. It remains elusive to predict the optimal gene expression

levels for most pathways due to the highly entangled nature of cellular metabolic and regulatory

networks. Additionally, for chromosomal gene expression, it is not fully understood yet how the

expression of different regions of the chromosome is affected by changes in environmental

conditions and whether/how an inserted gene construct will affect the native expression level of the

insertion region. It is, therefore, very difficult to rationally decide where to integrate a gene

construct. Here, we present a new metabolic engineering strategy for optimizing a pathway's

performance by tuning the gene expression through position-dependent expression variation (Fig.

1). In this method, we utilize the Tn5 transposase to randomly integrate pathway genes in the *E. coli*

genome in a multiplexed fashion. We subsequently screen the libraries using syntrophic co-culture

amplification of production (SnoCAP), which converts the production phenotype into a readily

screenable growth phenotype, as described in our previous work (*36*). We demonstrate the

approach using a pathway for the production of isobutanol, a promising drop-in biofuel (*37*).

Efficient isobutanol production in *E. coli* has been achieved by diverting the branched-chain

amino acid pathway intermediate 2-ketoisovalerate (2-KIV) for conversion into isobutanol (*38*)

(Fig. 2A). It has been demonstrated that by overexpressing AlsS from *Bacillus subtilis*, IlvC and

IlvD from *E. coli* (for the conversion of pyruvate to 2-KIV), and KivD and AdhA from *Lactococcus*

lactis (for the conversion of 2-KIV to isobutanol), production can reach up to 84% of the theoretical

yield under aerobic batch conditions (*38*) and titers can reach up to 50.8 g/L under fed-batch

conditions (*39*). Resolution of a cofactor imbalance has resulted in strains reaching 100% of

theoretical yield under anaerobic conditions (*40*), and a recently developed strategy for isobutanol-

linked growth selection under anaerobic conditions enabled optimization of pathway expression

levels for achieving optimal production rates (*41*).

While much work with this pathway has relied on plasmid-based expression of the

pathway genes, there is also interest in developing chromosomally integrated strains. Akita *et al.*

(*42*) have demonstrated the integration of the five pathway genes into the *E. coli* genome, resulting

in a titer of 6.8 g/L and a yield of 55%, without the addition of costly antibiotics or inducers.

Bassalo *et al.* (*43*) developed a new CRISPR-based method for high-efficiency, single-step

chromosomal integration in *E. coli* and, in demonstrating its significant size capability, reported

integration of the entire five-gene isobutanol pathway into a single chromosomal locus, leading to

2.2 g/L isobutanol from 85 g/L glucose.

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In the present work, we demonstrate that the generation of libraries with the isobutanol

pathway genes integrated into diverse chromosomal positions combined with high-throughput

production phenotype screening is an effective means of generating high-performance

chromosomally integrated strains. *E. coli* strains resulted from this study show, to our knowledge,

the highest titers and yields yet reported with the isobutanol pathway genes expressed exclusively

from the chromosome.

Results

Construction and screening of Tn5 integration libraries

We began by constructing an integration library (Library A) in which a construct containing the *alsS* gene, under the PLlacO1 promoter, and a kanamycin-resistance gene was integrated by Tn5 transposase into the genome of JCL260 Δ*lysA* in random locations. JCL260 was developed by Atsumi *et al.* (*38*) as an isobutanol production strain and its genome features six gene deletions created to decrease byproduct formation, as well as the *lacI*q mutation for reduced leakiness of genes under the *lac* promoter prior to induction. We introduced the Δ*lysA* deletion into JCL260 in our previous work in order to render the strain a lysine auxotroph for applying the SnoCAP screening approach (*36*). In the SnoCAP approach, a library is co-encapsulated in water-in-oil microdroplets with a fluorescent sensor strain that is auxotrophic for the target molecule of interest. The library itself is also auxotrophic for a second, orthogonal molecule (here, lysine) supplied by the sensor strain. This cross-feeding configuration enables conversion of the production phenotype into a fluorescent output, amplified by co-culture growth (*36*). To screen for overproducers of 2-ketoisovalerate, an intermediate in the isobutanol pathway (Fig. 2A), we use a sensor strain with a deletion of the *ilvD* gene (encoding a dihydroxy-acid dehydratase), which prevents it from converting 2,3-dihydroxy-isovalerate into 2-ketoisovalerate. This strain can only grow when it is provided an exogenous source of 2-ketoisovalerate and/or branched-chain amino acids. We demonstrated in our previous work that this sensor can be used to identify strains that will overproduce isobutanol once the genes responsible for converting 2-ketoisovalerate to isobutanol (*kivD* and *adhA*) are added to them (*36*).

The aforementioned integration of *alsS* into JCL260 Δ*lysA* was accomplished by PCR amplification of the *alsS* and *kan* genes with primers that add the 19 bp mosaic end sequence recognized by Tn5, followed by reaction with Tn5, and electroporation of cells with the resulting transposome. The approximate library size was determined to be ~$3.4 \pm 1.1 \times 10^4$ by plating a

small quantity of the cells after a short initial recovery on kanamycin-containing plates. The

remainder of the library was subjected to a liquid kanamycin selection and subsequently screened

by SnoCAP.

The cells are loaded into microdroplets at densities such that all droplets contain sensor cells,

and most droplets contain either zero or one secretor cell from the integration library. Thus, the co-

growth phenotype of individual library members may be assessed. The microdroplet

compartmentalization format enables high-throughput screening and isolation of droplets of interest

by fluorescence-activated droplet sorting (FADS) (*44*).

Fluorescence measurement of the droplets containing Library A members co-cultured with

fluorescent sensor strain showed that more droplets exhibited growth than when droplets contained

co-cultures with the parent strain, which lacks the *alsS* gene, as the secretor (Fig. 2Bi,ii). We sorted

the top 0.3% of droplets with the highest fluorescence signal and plated the pool of droplets on plates

with tetracycline to select for the secretor cells and against the sensor cells (the parent strain of the

secretor strain libraries contains a tetracycline resistance gene in the F plasmid, whereas the sensor

strain is tetracycline sensitive). We assessed the isobutanol production of colonies obtained from

the screening and colonies from the unscreened library, after transformation with plasmid pSA65,

which encodes KivD and AdhA. Of 12 colonies chosen at random from the unscreened library, 10

produced less than 0.1 g/L after 48 h of fermentation (similar to the parent strain), one produced 0.4

g/L and the other produced 2.1 g/L (Fig. S1). Of 10 randomly selected colonies from the sorted pool,

all produced more than 2.5 g/L (Fig. S1). There is a significant difference in isobutanol production

between these two groups (P-value < 0.0001, unpaired two-sample t-test), which demonstrates the

effectiveness of the screening method.

We also attempted integration of the entire three gene operon (*alsS, ilvCD*), along with the

kanamycin resistance cassette, in one transposome. This is a 6.3 kb construct, compared to 3 kb for

kan-alsS. While we could generate a substantial number of kanamycin-resistant cells from the whole

operon integration ($6.0 \pm 2.7 \times 10^3$ in a single integration), upon encapsulation with the sensor strain

and incubation, we did not detect any co-growth in the droplets at either 0.5 or 1.0 g/L norvaline,

whereas the *kan-alsS* integration library led to droplets displaying significant cell growth at both of

these norvaline concentrations. We hypothesized this lack of growth could be due to a problem with

the library generation, such as incomplete integrations.

206   Due to the above observation that the longer construct had a lower integration efficiency, we

chose to minimize construct length and use the *ilvCD* genes as a selection marker by utilizing their

essentiality in minimal medium, rather than an antibiotic. We deleted *ilvD* from JCL260 Δ*lysA* and

integrated constructs containing either both genes *ilvC* and *ilvD* behind the PLlacO1 promoter or

only the *ilvD* gene behind the same promoter. We performed the selection in minimal M9 medium

supplemented with IPTG and lysine, with a small amount of the transformed cells plated on solid

medium for library size estimation and the rest undergoing liquid selection. These integrations

produced far smaller library sizes than the *alsS* integration construct ($\sim 10^2$ integrants per

electroporation vs. $\sim 10^4$ for *alsS*). We determined that this was due to substantially lower survival

rates in the minimal medium selection compared to kanamycin selection in LB medium. For

example, when JCL260 Δ*lysA* Δ*ilvD* was transformed with pSA69, which carries *alsS/ilvCD*, as

well as a kanamycin resistance gene, the number of colonies recovered on LB plates with kanamycin

was two orders of magnitude higher than the number on M9 plates with lysine and IPTG. Further

optimization of the recovery method, such as supplementation of additional nutrients or seeding of

small quantities of the branched-chain amino acids may help improve this lower-than-expected

recovery rate and increase the diversity of the library. It should also be noted that the survival rate

on the solid medium may be different from that in the liquid medium, which could contribute to

inaccuracies in estimated library size. Deep sequencing of the library could be used to quantify the

library size more accurately. We repeated the *ilvD* and *ilvCD* library generation several times and

pooled the integrants, resulting in libraries of each of size ~500-1,000 (estimated from agar plating).

We then integrated the *alsS-kan* transposome into these libraries, which led to ~1.1 ± 0.5 x 10^4

integrants for the *ilvD/alsS* library (Library B) and 1.3 ± 0.3 x 10^4 for the *ilvCD/alsS* library (Library

C). Therefore, the library should consist of about 10 different *alsS* integration locations for each

ilvD or *ilvCD* integration library member.

When assessed by the SnoCAP method (library members co-encapsulated in microdroplets

with sensor strain, incubated for co-growth, and the fluorescence of the droplets measured), the *ilvD*

and *ilvCD* integration libraries displayed no measurable co-growth. The *ilvD/alsS* and *ilvCD/alsS*

libraries (Libraries B and C, respectively) on the other hand, showed substantially more fluorescence

compared to the library with only *alsS* integrated (Library A) (Fig. 2B).

We sorted the droplets containing co-cultures of these libraries and recovered colonies from

the pools of droplets, and then transformed the isolates with pSA65 and assessed isobutanol

production. The best isolates we identified came from Library C. In particular, an isolate termed C7

reached a production level closely approaching that of the strain expressing the pathway genes from

a plasmid (Fig. 3A). With the goal of understanding the relationship between production phenotype

and genome-position-dependent gene expression, we decided to examine isolates displaying a

spectrum of production levels and hence also isolated several library members with low- and

intermediate-production levels (Fig. 3A) by screening the random libraries via the microplate format

of SnoCAP.

Genomic characterization of select library isolates
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We determined the insertion site locations in the selected isolates by transposon footprinting,

which also allowed us to eliminate duplicates of the same genotype and resulted in a panel of unique

isolates reported in this work. The integration locations were found to spread across the whole

genome (Fig. 3B, Table 1). Intriguingly, each of the Library B isolates, B1 and B2, contains

integrations into the F plasmid, a large (~100 kb) plasmid previously introduced to the base strain

to supply *lacIq* for increased levels of the *lac* repressor. The F plasmid is stably maintained in *E.*

coli due to an active partitioning system (*45, 46*), and it has been suggested that placing

heterologous genes on the F plasmid may provide improved stability over the use of other

plasmids (*47, 48*). It is also interesting that in isolate B2, both integration constructs are found to

be located on the F plasmid.

Another noteworthy observation was that two of the disrupted genes, *ttdT* and *yjhI*, are genes

in which we had found mutations during previous work in which we chemically mutagenized

JCL260 Δ*lysA*, screened for improved isobutanol productivity and resequenced the genome of an

improved isolate (*36*). In that study, the strain with the best production level possessed a mutation

in the *ttdT* gene leading to an alanine to valine substitution at position 390 of the protein, and

yjhI contained a mutation leading to a premature stop codon after the first 187 amino acids (of

227).

In the best isolate, C7, the two integration constructs landed in *ttdT* and *yqiH,* two genes

that are quite close to each other, separated by only 18 kb (Fig. 4A). To better understand the genetic

mechanism underlying the high-production phenotype of this isolate, we investigated whether the

gene disruptions, besides expression of the inserted genes, can contribute to increased production.

We knocked out the *ttdT* and *yqiH* genes individually in a base strain JCL260 Δ*lysA*. Into each

deletion strain, we then integrated *alsS* in the *yghX* site, which we have previously seen leads to an

intermediate production level (and therefore should allow us to see changes in the production that

may not be visible in a very low- or high-producing background strain). After transformation of the

strains with pSA65, we tested isobutanol production and found that the *ttdT* deletion strain produces

more isobutanol to a statistically significant degree compared to the strain possessing wildtype *ttdT*,

whereas *yqiH* deletion does not have a statistically significant effect (Fig. 4B).

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Characterization of pathway gene transcript levels in select library isolates

We next analyzed gene expression at the transcript-level in various isolates of different production levels. We harvested the RNA during exponential growth (3 h after induction of the pathway genes with IPTG), reverse transcribed it, and analyzed gene expression of *alsS*, *ilvC*, and *ilvD* by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) (Fig. 5B), while continuing to grow the cultures and measuring their isobutanol production 48 h following induction (Fig. 5A). It was found that the pathway gene expression in each of the integrated strains was, as expected, far lower than that in the strain expressing *alsS/ilvCD* from the pSA69 plasmid (Fig. 5B, note the log-scale of the Y-axis). Yet, with significantly lower expression levels of all three genes, the top isolate C7 showed a production level very close to that of the plasmid strain. Although random integration may affect cell growth, all of the examined isolates displayed similar growth patterns under the culture conditions used in this study (Fig. S2). This is likely because integrants with significant growth defects were lost during the stages of the library construction and screening process that involved monoculture growth (liquid selection after transposon integration and selection on agar plates after SnoCAP screening).

We noted from the quantified transcript levels that there was a lack of strong correlation between the expression level and the distance from the origin. For instance, close examination of the four isolates from Library A (A1-A4) showed that there was a large variation in the expression level of *alsS* between these isolates, whose integration sites were at 3.8, 4.5, 4.2, and 1.4 Mb, respectively (Fig. 3B). Yet, the expression level of A1 was very low despite the integration's close proximity to the replication origin (*oriC*, 3.9 Mb); whereas A4 exhibited a very high expression level even though the integration site was the farthest from the origin among these four integrants (Fig. 5B). This observation is consistent with previous studies (*32, 33*) and exemplifies that position-dependent expression is affected by a myriad of known and yet-to-be-elucidated factors, instead of simply the gene dosage determined by the distance from the origin.

With the gene transcript profiles of these isolates, we sought to elucidate the relationship between gene expression and production phenotype. Some interesting observations were made. For instance, predictably, isolates from Library A have lower expression of *ilvD* than isolates from Libraries B and C. However, *ilvC* can be seen to be upregulated even in certain strains that do not have *ilvC* insertion (A3, A4, B1). These strains have high expression levels of *alsS*, so it is likely that accumulation of acetolactate, the product of AlsS, is inducing higher transcription levels of *ilvC* in these strains, as has been previously observed (*49*). We also noted that there was a similar trend of relative expression levels within the pathway (*ilvC* highest followed by *alsS* and then *ilvD*) in the medium- and high-production isolates (A3, A4, B1, C5, C6, C7), which was also seen in the plasmid strain. Most strikingly, however, there was a lack of a clear relationship between gene expression levels and production. In particular, despite the fact that the top four analyzed isolates (B1, C5, C6, C7) all showed a much higher expression of *ilvD* than the next two, substantially lower-producing, isolates (A3, A4), it is not clear what causes C7 to perform significantly better in production than the other three isolates or why differences in gene expression levels across these three do not lead to differences in production. Examination of the low-production isolates also provided some insights. Low expression, especially of *alsS*, appears to have caused low production in A1 and A2. Intriguingly, another isolate C1 showed much higher expression of the three pathway genes but did not exhibit increased production. We suspect that this could be due to deleterious effects of disrupting the genes in the integration sites or to poor pathway balancing. The above findings underscore the highly entangled and complex nature of optimizing pathway gene expression for a specific production phenotype.

We have here analyzed expression only at the mRNA level and it should be noted that post-transcriptional processes often have significant effects on protein abundance and activity (*50*). Further study involving quantitative proteomics and enzyme activity measurements may provide further insights into the mechanisms underlying the performance of the integrated strains.

Construction and characterization of strains with all isobutanol pathway genes integrated

To generate strains in which the entire isobutanol pathway is expressed from the chromosome, we integrated the *adhA* and *kivD* genes into isolate C7. Because in the work of Atsumi *et al.* (*38*), these genes were expressed from a high-copy-number plasmid, we expected that high expression levels would be needed to achieve suitable production levels. We utilized the chemically inducible chromosomal evolution (CIChE) method of Tyo *et al.* (*18*) for generating multiple copies of a gene in a single integration site. In this approach, the genes of interest are placed alongside an antibiotic resistance marker between 1 kb homology regions that enable RecA-mediated recombination to increase the copy number in response to increases in antibiotic concentration (Fig. 6A). If desired, the copy number can be stabilized by deletion of the *recA* gene. We integrated the CIChE construct containing *kivD, adhA,* and the chloramphenicol resistance gene *cat* into the *aslB* site, a high-expression site (*32*). Before integrating this construct into C7, we also integrated it into a clean background strain, passaged it into higher chloramphenicol concentrations, deleted the *recA* gene to stabilize the copy number, and measured the construct copy number by qPCR of the *cat* gene (Fig. S3). These measurements demonstrated that the copy number can be increased up to about 60 copies by this method. We tested the production of the C7 strain with the CIChE *kivD-adhA* integration (C7 CIChE) in 50 μg/mL chloramphenicol and found that it produced more isobutanol than a strain with just a single copy of *kivD* and *adhA* integrated into the same site. Further increasing the chloramphenicol concentration did not lead to an increase in production level. The fully integrated strain C7 CIChE performed very similarly to C7 pSA65, generating isobutanol titers and yields lower than but close to those of the double plasmid strain (Fig. 6B,C). Noticeably, on the other hand, this strain reached higher cell densities than the plasmid-bearing strains (Fig. 6D).

We also examined the *kivD* and *adhA* transcript levels in the fully integrated strain

compared to the plasmid-bearing strains. As expected, they are lower in C7 CIChE. Quite

surprisingly, however, we found them to be dramatically lower (more than two orders of

magnitude) in the integrated strain compared to those in both strains expressing *kivD/adhA* from

plasmid pSA65 (Fig. 6E). This indicates that the expression levels rendered by the high-copy

number plasmid are unnecessarily high. This result further demonstrates that it is feasible to

achieve high production through significantly lower pathway gene expression from the

chromosome.

361
362 **Discussion**
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Synthetic biology is making strides toward solutions to some of society's most pressing

problems. The challenges of improving strain stability and reducing cell-to-cell variability, however,

still present major hurdles to overcome (*51*). Moving gene expression from plasmids to the genome

can help to manage these issues. Yet it remains difficult to predict the expression levels that will be

optimal for production and achievable by genomic integration into a particular site. Moreover, the

interplay between gene integration and surrounding regions on the chromosome, such as gene

disruption and expression level perturbation, could cause complications and additional difficulty in

optimizing pathway expression.

The new approach of screening random integration libraries developed in the present study

bypasses the challenges of rational selection of integration locations. The transposon integration

method is versatile and applicable to almost any gene of interest. Since the integration is not

homology-based (unlike lambda Red recombinase-based integration, for example) it can even be

used on genes that are already natively present in the genome at suboptimal expression levels, such

as *ilvC* in the work presented here. The high-throughput screening enables large libraries to be

assessed, making it feasible to multiplex integrations of different pathway genes.

The application of the approach to the isobutanol pathway demonstrates its effectiveness and has generated a strain with, to our knowledge, the highest production titers yet reported in the literature for an *E. coli* strain with the isobutanol pathway chromosomally integrated. This chromosomally integrated strain, which achieves production performance close to that of a plasmid-based strain with substantially higher pathway gene expression levels, also provides a striking example of how plasmid-based expression can be unnecessarily high. We expect that the lower expression levels in the integrants may be beneficial under more stressful conditions, alleviating unnecessary demands on the cell. Even under the relatively optimal fermentation conditions used here, the integrated strains reach higher cell densities than the plasmid-bearing strains, which may in part be a result of reduced burden on these strains. Furthermore, we found this approach can take advantage of beneficial gene deletions that may not be obvious choices for targeted deletion to yield optimal production.

Our results also open intriguing questions for future investigation, the answers to which would be valuable in guiding rational genome engineering endeavors. For example, it will be interesting to learn what factors can lead a strain with relatively high expression levels of all pathway genes, such as C1, to have such a substantially lower production level than other strains. Also intriguing is the fact that, in the highest-producing isolate we identified, C7, as well as in another high-producing isolate, B2, the gene integrations are located quite close to each other. It remains unclear whether the good performance is due to that region having optimal expression levels, or if the proximity of the constructs provides some benefit, or it has merely occurred by chance. Deep-sequencing pools of droplets collected from different degrees of screening stringency could provide further insights into whether proximity leads to improvements in production. Additionally, studies with targeted integrations could be designed to probe potential mechanisms. Even without answers to these intriguing questions regarding the mechanisms underlying the strain improvements, the approach presented here, combining generation of large integration libraries by transposon

404   integration and high-throughput screening by SnoCAP, provides a streamlined and broadly

405   applicable method to generate efficient chromosomally integrated biochemical producers.

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Materials and Methods

Strains and plasmids

Strains and plasmids used are listed in Table S1. JCL260, pSA65, and pSA69 (*38, 52*) were provided

by James Liao, UCLA. Keio strains were obtained from the *E. coli* genetic stock center (CGSC,

http://cgsc2.biology.yale.edu/). Plasmid pSAS31 was constructed by Scott Scholz(*33*).

Media

M9IPG, consisting of M9 salts (47.8 mM Na_2HPO_4, 22.0 mM KH_2PO_4, 8.55 mM NaCl, 9.35 mM

NH_4Cl, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.3 mM $CaCl_2$), micronutrients (2.91 nM $(NH_4)_2MoO_4$, 401.1 nM H_3BO_3,

30.3 nM $CoCl_2$, 9.61 nM $CuSO_4$, 51.4 nM $MnCl_2$, 6.1 nM $ZnSO_4$, 0.01 mM $FeSO_4$), thiamine HCl

(3.32 μM) and dextrose (D-glucose) at the stated concentrations, was used for all culturing

experiments. For SnoCAP screening, in both microdroplets and microplates, the glucose

concentration was 20 g/L, and the medium was supplemented with 3 mM L-isoleucine and 50

μg/mL kanamycin. For isobutanol production monocultures, the medium contained 36 g/L glucose,

5 g/L yeast extract, and no antibiotics were added. Precultures for both screening and production

cultures were carried out in LB Lennox with antibiotics appropriate to the strain. When used,

antibiotics were supplied at the following concentrations: ampicillin, 100 μg/mL; kanamycin, 50

μg/mL; tetracycline, 10 μg/mL; chloramphenicol, 50 μg/mL.

Transposon integration library construction

All primers and oligonucleotides were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc. (IDT) and

are listed in Table S2. Each of the integration constructs was amplified by PCR from the pSA69

plasmid, adding the Tn5 mosaic ends. Primers phosph_transp_kan_for and phosph_transp_alsS_rev

were used to amplify *kan*-PLlacO1-*alsS* (for Libraries A, B and C).

phosph_transp_PLlacO1_ilvC_for and phosph_transp_ilvD_rev were used to amplify *ilvCD* and

introduce a PLlacO1 promoter in front of *ilvC* (for Library C). phosph_transp_PLlacO1_ilvD_for

and phosph_transp_ilvD_rev were used to amplify *ilvD* and introduce a PLlacO1 promoter in front

of *ilvD* (for Library B). The linear PCR product was then digested with both DpnI and SpeI enzymes

(NEB) to digest the template plasmid, phosphorylated with T4 polynucleotide kinase (NEB),

cleaned with a PCR clean-up kit (Qiagen) and eluted in TE buffer. The DNA was then reacted with

EZ-Tn5 transposase (Lucigen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The resulting

transposome was then electroporated into the appropriate strain. The cells were recovered for 1.5 hr

with 1 mL SOC medium. Then 50 µL was used for dilution and plating on LB with kanamycin

plates to assess library size, and the remaining cells were grown to saturation in 100 mL selective

medium (either LB with 50 µg/mL kanamycin for *alsS* integration or M9IPG with 0.1 mM IPTG

and 3 mM lysine for *ilvCD* or *ilvD* integration). The cells were then frozen in 1 mL aliquots

(resuspended in fresh LB with 25% glycerol) and later thawed, washed, and grown in LB with 50

µg/mL kanamycin to prepare them for screening.

SnoCAP screening

SnoCAP screening for 2-KIV production, in droplet and microplate formats, was employed as

previously described(*36*). Stationary phase cultures in LB were used as the inocula for both formats.

For the microplate format, K12 Δ*ilvD* was used as the sensor strain. M9IPG with 20 g/L glucose, 3

mM isoleucine, and 50 µg/mL kanamycin was used as the medium for all screening co-cultures

except for those with the *ilvD* and *ilvCD* libraries (without *alsS* integration), in which the kanamycin

was omitted. For the droplet format, K12 Δ*ilvD* pSAS31, which expresses mNeonGreen, was used

as the sensor strain. For the droplet sorting assay, the droplet collection device was soaked in a

mixture of HFE-7500 oil and water for several days before use in order to improve droplet stability

after collection.

Isobutanol fermentations and analysis

Isobutanol cultures were grown similarly to the method previously described(*36*). Overnight

cultures in LB with antibiotics were diluted 1:100 v/v into 10 mL of M9IPG with 36 g/L glucose, 5

g/L yeast extract, and no antibiotics, in a 125-mL baffled, unvented polypropylene flasks. Cells were

grown for 2.5 to 3 h at 37 °C, 250 rpm, followed by induction of the pathway genes with 0.1 mM

IPTG. Flasks were then sealed with parafilm and incubated at 30 °C, 250 rpm. Samples were taken

daily to measure cell density and glucose and isobutanol concentrations. Cell density was assessed

by measuring the OD_{600} of 200 μL of culture, diluted into the linear range, in a VersaMax microplate

reader (Molecular Devices). Glucose and isobutanol were measured by high-performance liquid

chromatography (HPLC), as previously described[37]. In the case of cultures in which RNA was

harvested, 0.5 mL of cells were harvested with RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent (Qiagen) 3-4 h after

induction. RNA was isolated using an RNA mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's

instructions, including on-column DNAse I digestion. An additional digestion using Turbo DNA-

free Kit (Invitrogen) was performed after purification to eliminate any remaining genomic DNA.

The RNA was then reverse transcribed to cDNA using MultiScribe Reverse Transcriptase

(Invitrogen) and approximately 400 ng RNA per 20 μL reaction, with the following temperature

profile: 25 °C, 10 min; 37 °C, 120 min, 85 °C, 5 min. A no reverse transcriptase control was carried

out for each sample and checked with at least one set of primers during the real-time PCR analysis

to ensure no significant residual genomic DNA. qPCR was conducted on the cDNA using SYBR

Green qPCR Master Mix (Life Technologies) with 20 μL reactions. Reactions were run in 96-well

plates on a 7900HT Fast Real-Time PCR Machine (Applied Biosystems), courtesy of the University

of Michigan Advanced Genomics Core. The PCR program was as follows: 50 °C, 2 min; 95 °C, 10

min; 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, 60 °C for 1 min. Primers used are listed in Table S2. Data were

analyzed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (*53*).

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kivD and adhA integration

A CIChE construct consisting of *kivD, adhA,* and a chloramphenicol resistance gene, *cat*, flanked

by 1 kb homology regions, was previously generated and integrated into the *aslB* locus of the

NV3r1 strain by λ-Red recombineering (*36*). Following the method of Tyo *et al.* (*18*), we

passaged this strain into increasing concentrations of chloramphenicol and then deleted the *recA*

gene by P1 transduction from donor strain BW 26,547 Δ*recA*::*kan* Lambda *recA+* (obtained from

the Coli Genetic Stock Center (CGSC)). Transductants were selected on LB plates with 50 μg/mL

kanamycin and the corresponding concentration of chloramphenicol. Genomic DNA was isolated

using DNEasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen), and the copy number was determined by qPCR using

the same primers as Tyo *et al.* (*18*), with one set for the *cat* gene and one for the *bioA* gene, which

is used as a single copy reference gene. Absolute copy number was determined by comparison to a

strain with a single copy of *cat* integrated into the *intC* locus (NV3r1 Δ*intC::yfp-cat*). To transfer

this integration into the C7 strain generated in this study, we prepared P1 lysates from NV3r1

(*recA+*) with the *kivD, adhA* CIChE construct after growing on 80 μg/mL chloramphenicol and

transduced it into the C7 strain, selecting on LB plates with 40 μg/mL chloramphenicol. Resulting

colonies were isolation streaked twice on LB agar with 40 μg/mL chloramphenicol and 0.8 mM

sodium citrate.

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681   platform. T.E.S. and M.T.C. performed the library screening. T.E.S. and D.N.C.
682   characterized the library isolates and fully integrated strains. T.E.S. and X.N.L. wrote the
683   manuscript. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.
684
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686   the paper and/or the Supplementary Materials.
687
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Figures and Tables

Figure 1. New approach for optimizing chromosomal heterologous gene expression by position-dependent expression variation. (A) Gene expression level varies depending on distance from the origin of replication, as well as other position-dependent factors. The expression level of a heterologous pathway gene affects the production phenotype of a strain. Increasing the expression level of a gene can improve production level by increasing flux through the pathway, but avoiding too high of an expression level can also provide benefits such as reducing the buildup of toxic intermediates and avoiding unnecessary metabolic burden. (B) Libraries with pathway genes integrated into various genome locations can be screened for production phenotype using syntrophic co-culture amplification of production (SnoCAP) (*36*). A cross-feeding co-culture is configured consisting of a secretor strain producing a target molecule and a sensor strain that cannot synthesize the target molecule autonomously. The co-cultures are compartmentalized in microfluidic droplets, incubated to allow co-growth, and then sorted to identify the strains with high production phenotypes.

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Figure 2. Screening of libraries with *alsS*, *ilvCD* integrated by Tn5. (A) Isobutanol
production pathway (*36, 52*). Acetolactate synthase (AlsS), ketol-acid reductoisomerase (IlvC),
dihydroxy-acid dehydratase (IlvD), 2-ketoacid decarboxylase (KivD), and alcohol
dehydrogenase (AdhA). Colored boxes correspond to the integrations in Libraries A (magenta), B
(yellow), and C (green). (B) Histograms comparing fluorescence signal from droplets containing
co-cultures of fluorescent sensor strain with unlabeled secretor strain libraries, compared to the
parent strain (i). The libraries were constructed by Tn5 integration of *kan*-PLlacO1-*alsS* (Library
A) (ii)*,* PLlacO1-*ilvD* followed by *kan*-PLlacO1-*alsS* (Library B) (iii), or PLlacO1-*ilvCD* followed
by *kan*-PLlacO1-*alsS* (Library C) (iv). Each histogram comprises data from the analysis of about
60,000 droplets.

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Figure 3. Production phenotype and gene insertion locations of select library isolates. (A)
Isobutanol titers of library isolates displaying various production levels. Samples were taken 48 h
after induction of the pathway genes. Each of the isolates has been transformed with the pSA65
plasmid expressing *kivD* and *adhA*. Parent strain JCL260 Δ*lysA* and JCL260 Δ*lysA* pSA69, which
expresses the *alsS* and *ilvCD* genes from the pSA69 plasmid, each also carrying pSA65, are
included for comparison. Error bars represent the standard deviation of three biological replicates.
(B) Gene integration locations of the isolates whose production is shown in (A).
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Figure 4. Examination of the effect of gene disruptions incurred during the Tn5 integrations in the C7 isolate on production phenotype. (A) Schematic of the locations of *kan*-PLlacO1-*alsS* and PLlacO1-*ilvCD* integrations in isolate C7, determined by transposon footprinting. (B) Isobutanol production of strains with *alsS* genomically integrated, containing plasmid pSA65 encoding *kivD* and *adhA*, and possessing deletions of either *ttdT* or *yqiH*, compared to the same strain without either deletion. Data shown are from samples taken 72 h after induction with IPTG. Error bars in (B) represent the standard deviation of three biological replicates. ***: significant difference at *P*-value < 0.0001 using an unpaired t-test. n.s.: not significant.

Figure 5. Investigation of the expression levels underlying production phenotypes of select library
isolates. (A) Isobutanol production 48 h after induction of the cultures from which the RNA had
been harvested. (B) Expression levels of *alsS*, *ilvC*, and *ilvD*, relative to *alsS* level in JCL260
Δ*lysA* pSA65/9. RNA was harvested 3 h after induction with IPTG. * indicates no amplification
during the qPCR reaction. Data from two biological replicate cultures of each strain are shown.
Error bars in (B) represent the standard deviation of three technical replicates.

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Figure 6. Fully integrated strain performance compared to strains with plasmids. (A) Overview
of the chemically inducible chromosomal evolution (CIChE) approach for gene copy number
amplification. A construct containing the genes of interest, *kivD* and *adhA*, along with the
chloramphenicol resistance marker, *cat*, flanked by two identical 1 kb homology regions, is
integrated into the *E. coli* chromosome. RecA-mediated recombination of the homology regions
results in some daughter cells having higher copy number of the integrated genes and thus able
to tolerate higher chloramphenicol concentrations. (B) Isobutanol production by strain C7 after
integration of *kivD-adhA* by CIChE, compared to C7 pSA65, which has *alsS* and *ilvCD* integrated
into the genome and *kivD* and *adhA* expressed from the pSA65 plasmid, and JCL260 Δ*lysA*
pSA65/9 which has all five pathway genes expressed from the plasmids. Error bars represent the
standard deviation of three biological replicates. (C) The yields of the cultures based on glucose
consumed. The inset in (C) lists the percentage of the theoretical maximum yield (0.41 g isobutanol
per gram glucose). (D) The cell densities of the production cultures whose performance is displayed
in (B) and (C). (E) Expression levels of *kivD* and *adhA*, relative to *kivD* level in JCL260 Δ*lysA*
pSA65/9. RNA was harvested 4 h after induction with IPTG. Error bars represent the standard
deviation of three technical replicates.
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771   **Table 1.** Gene integration locations.

Strain	Integration construct	Gene	Coordinate in gene of integration location	Direction relative to gene integrated into
A1	*kan-alsS*	*adeQ*	436	Opposite
A2	*kan-alsS*	*sgcX*	111	Opposite
C1	*kan-alsS*	*hybO*	812	Opposite
C1	*ilvCD*	*yjhI*	231	Same
A3	*kan-alsS*	*thiG*	73	Same
A4	*kan-alsS*	*ycjQ*	364	Opposite
C2	*kan-alsS*	*cysG*	563	Opposite
C2	*ilvCD*	*cas3*	1,387	Same
C3	*kan-alsS*	*ylbH*	205	Opposite
C3	*ilvCD*	*yjhI*	231	Same
B1	*kan-alsS*	*uraA*	659	Same
B1	*ilvD*	gamma delta (Tn1000) region of F plasmid	426 bp into *tnpX*	Same as *tnpX*
C4	*kan-alsS*	*gltF*	313	Opposite
C4	*ilvCD*	*yjhI*	231	Same
B2	*kan-alsS*	Upstream of *psiB* on F plasmid	218 bp upstream	Opposite of *psiB*
B2	*ilvD*	gamma delta (Tn1000) region of F plasmid	426 bp into *tnpX*	Same as *tnpX*
C5	*kan-alsS*	*rluB*	794	Same
C5	*ilvCD*	*ypdE*	76	Same
C6	*kan-alsS*	*ymjB*	7	Opposite
C6	*ilvCD*	*yjhI*	231	Same
C7	*kan-alsS*	*ttdT*	114	Opposite
C7	*ilvCD*	*yqiH*	512	Opposite

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